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IRRATIONAL BELIEFS, LIFE ORIENTATION AND TEMPORAL PERSPECTIVE OF PRISON INMATES

by

GEORGE BARRY MORRIS

A THESIS
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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Irrational Beliefs, Life Orientation and Temporal Perspective of Prison Inmates," submitted by George Barry Morris in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Counselling Psychology.

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DEDICATION

To Lorraine, Mark and Mother

ABSTRACT

The present study attempted to investigate the psychological health of criminals based on Albert Ellis' Rational-Emotive theory. Irrational thinking, as postulated by Albert Ellis, was considered a relevant factor contributing to deviant behaviour. Other dimensions of mental health examined in this study were the criminals' life orientation, according to Erich Fromm, and temporal perspective.

The Adult Irrational Ideas Inventory (AII), Life Orientation Test (LOT), Wallace Temporal Perspective Technique (WTP), and a Biographical Data Inventory were administered to 104 male prisoners from the Alberta Correctional Institutes and 63 non-institutionalized males, providing criminal and non-criminal samples. Findings indicated that the criminal sample possessed significantly more irrational beliefs and were less future oriented than non-criminals. No significant difference was obtained between the two samples on the measure of life orientation.

A frequency analysis of the Adult Irrational Ideas Inventory revealed that the criminal sample strongly adhered to those irrational beliefs which indicated self-centeredness and control of others. The criminal sample was categorized into high, middle and low groups as determined by scores on the AII inventory, LOT and WTP technique. An analysis of variance indicated no significant differences between the inmates' degree of irrationality and demographic factors. However, significant findings demonstrated that prisoners with an anti-life orientation perceived the institution favorably and considered it as assisting in their rehabilitation. In relation to temporal perspective, future oriented criminals were found to be the eldest in their families, had been incarcerated for longer periods of time, and possessed an unfavorable view of the institution, compared to other inmates. Findings also indicated a similar congruence between the theoretical positions of Albert Ellis and Erich Fromm. Implications for further research and treatment of the criminal were also presented.

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Chapter 1

Thesis Problem

Introduction

Cooley (1927), an early reformer in criminological theory, commented on the problems of delinquency by stating that, "no permanent rehabilitation could said to have been effected until a thoroughgoing modification had taken place in the criminal's mental and emotional life, beliefs, attitudes, habits and conduct (p. 141)." For nearly half a century, however, research in criminology has only partially focused on these objectives. Nelson and Richardson (1971) believe that today's criminologist is no nearer solutions of crime than were the early reformers. Sagarin (1973), President of the American Society of Criminology, contends that, "Our prisons are failures. Recidivism is high, and men come out of their gates more bitter, more anti-social and more skilled . . . in how to commit crimes (p. 32)." McLaren (1973, p. 32) appropriately suggests, "that research in the field of corrections must be vastly improved." Others (McGrath, 1965; Ouimet, 1969; Glaser, 1971; Gottfredson, 1971; Richmond, 1972; Thompson, 1972) consider research in criminology as essential but feel that to date it has served little benefit. Accordingly, then, in the area of criminality "the need and opportunity for creative thinking is great (Cohen and Short, 1972, p. 236)."

Previous investigations into criminal behaviour have dealt primarily with personality attributes. A major review of these studies has been reported by Schuessler and Cressey (1950). This early attempt to categorize all previous research on the personality of the criminal concluded, "that personality characteristics are distributed in the criminal population in about the same way as in the general population (p. 483)." More recently, Waldo and Dinitz (1967), in an extensive survey of the literature since 1950, found that "after much research the role of personality in criminality has not been resolved (p. 202)."

Though a large number of studies have provided little evidence into the personality traits of the criminals,* many therapeutic models have been employed in an attempt to change these traits. Some of these approaches have been the following: Behaviour Modification (Saunders and Reppucci, 1972; Ross and Doody, 1973), Family therapy (Ostby, 1968), Group therapy (Fenton, 1958; Mathe, 1969; Redfering, 1971), Home placement (Wilgosh, 1973), Individual therapy (Adams, 1962) Methadone therapy (JooShin and Kerstetter, 1973), Nominal groups (Zastrow, 1973), Physical challenge (Kelly and Baer, 1971), Psychedelic drugs (Duncan, 1972), Reality therapy (Coleman, 1970), and Social manipulation (Galliher, 1971).

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*criminal, delinquent, inmate, offender and deviate will be used synonomously in this dissertation.

For the most part these treatment programs have proved unsatsifactory as they have not curbed the delinquents' anti-social impulses. Slaikeu (1973) evaluated group treatment programs for offenders (based on a literature review covering 1945-1970) and concluded that, "it is impossible to consider that group treatment in correctional institutions is an effective rehabilitation mode (p. 87)." Robison and Smith (1971), in a review of existing clinical programs for delinquent behaviour, found that no one therapeutic approach was more effective than any other. These findings suggest that, "little real treatment is done in corrections today (Lehman, 1972, p. 204)" and this Russon (1965, p. 414) believes, "may be because psychology has not yet succeeded in defining what offenders are."

For the most part research (presented in Chapter 2) into criminal attributes has been descriptive rather than dynamic in nature. Research in this area has tended to emphasize criminal characteristics such as impulsivity, aggression, anxiety, defensiveness and tolerance. However, these traits are only descriptive aspects of the criminal and are not perceived directly in most therapeutic approaches. These personality traits instead are viewed indirectly during therapy in terms of behavioural manifestations. The criminal's behaviour is perceived in a variety of ways and depends upon the clinical model employed. Some of the therapeutic methods and their direction of therapy used in treating the criminal are as follows: acceptance of feelings (Client-centered therapy), "awareness" (Group therapy), interaction (Family therapy), past experiences (Psychoanalytic therapy), responsibility (Reality therapy), and reward (Behavioural therapy). It would appear that these methods of therapy focus upon dimensions which are not directly related to the reported descriptive findings about the criminal. There is reason to conclude then that one factor which may be related to the ineffectiveness of treatment programs in criminality is the existing incongruency between the personality characteristics of the criminal and the therapeutic methods employed to change these traits in "desired directions." On the other hand, if specific criminal characteristics could be clearly defined and a method of therapy employed which would directly consider these characteristics (more so than the above models) then it would seem likely that therapy may then be effective. Directly confronting specific characteristics within a corresponding therapeutic framework may be one approach which would lead to successful criminal rehabilitation.

DiTullio (1969) provides direction for defining those characteristics of importance if a greater understanding of the criminal is to be obtained. "In clinical criminology, it is vital to be able to clarify reasons for the varying influence of feelings of anger, rage and power on human behaviour (p. 13)." In support, Tappan (McGrath, 1965, p. 57) has suggested that much criminality is conducted through a "variety of rationalizations." Determining the delinquent's reasons or "rationale" for his actions involves examination of specific aspects of his cognitive system.

Cognitive influence on behaviour has been well documented by Festinger (1954), Rokeach (1960), Schacter and Singer (1962), Wolman (1965), and Simon (1967). An individual's cognitions are prime determiners effecting his behaviour. Schacter and Singer (1962, p. 379) state that, "the cognition, in a sense exerts a steering function" on an individual's emotions. The cognitions provide a framework within which the individual labels his feelings. Recently, the cognitive dimension and its effect on delinquent behaviour has gained prominence in criminological research. Evidence (Spitzer and Spavecek, 1965; Shore et al., 1967; Kahn, 1971) suggests that the delinquent is capable of developing a cognitive awareness which can lead to positive behaviour change.

The Ouimet Report (1969) on Canadian Corrections recognized the lack of empirical information necessary in leading to long term treatment programs. Identifying empirically an aspect of the criminal's cognitive domain (i.e. reasons for his maladaptive behaviour) is an initial concern. "Studies seeking to explore some, rather than all behaviour, would represent a significant advance in the science of criminology (Nelson and Richardson, 1971, p. 310)." Once this dimension of the criminal's cognitive domain is defined then it would seem reasonable to assume that a corresponding treatment technique would have a likelihood of success. The clinical approach employed would need to deal directly with those reasons and beliefs influencing the delinquent's behaviour. The present investigation is interested only in defining those beliefs which may influence criminal behaviour. If these beliefs can be defined and if there is some indication that they are related to delinquent characteristics, then there would be implications for further research. Investigating the effectiveness of the therapeutic model would be of considerable importance.

Statement of the Problem

Cohen (1966, p. 36) has stated, "that much behaviour that was once regarded as vicious, depraved or criminal is now widely regarded as a manifestation or symptom of an illness." Durkheim (1951) and Sutherland and Cressey (1960) hold similar views concerning the relationship between criminal deviance and mental health. Research presented in Chapter 2 supports this position and points out that many criminal characteristics are similar to those attributed to the psychologically unhealthy personality. It was concluded from previous research findings that cognitive characteristics are most relevant to the criminal's psychological disturbance. The purpose of this study was to explore and empirically define an aspect of the criminal's cognitive dimension. In particular, those beliefs which may be influencing the criminal's behaviour were investigated. These beliefs were considered important as they could be viewed directly within the context of a therapeutic model. If certain beliefs were found to be possessed by the criminal then this would provide support for more extensive research regarding the treatment approach.

Those irrational beliefs postulated by Ellis (1962) which have been related to psychological disturbances of the individual were investigated in this study. According to Ellis, irrational beliefs discriminate the disturbed individual from those able to cope with problem situations. Findings by Morris (1974a) demonstrated that a sample of inmates from a Correctional Institution possessed significantly more irrational beliefs than a normal sample. Based on the findings of this study it seemed logical to complete a more extensive investigation of this aspect of the criminal's psychological health.

In addition the present study explored other dimensions of the criminal's mental health. In particular, research (Chapter 2) has shown that an individual's life orientation and temporal perspective are closely associated to psychological health. Previous information obtained from a criminal sample (Morris, 1974b) revealed that the criminal related to life in a "non-productive" manner and experienced a temporal disorientation. It seemed logical that a further investigation of the criminals' life orientation and temporal perspective may indicate a certain relatedness to his possession of irrational beliefs.

It is anticipated that information derived from this investigation will be of assistance to correctional counsellors, probation officers, parole officers, psychologists, social workers and administrators in their attempt to rehabilitate the criminal. The findings may also initiate research in the development of therapeutic programs.

Theoretical Models

Albert Ellis' Rational-Emotive theory was the theoretical model upon which this investigation was based. This approach was chosen as it assumes those factors which function at the cognitive level as most relevant to the understanding of human behaviour. According to Ellis, human actions such as sensing, emoting and moving are related to an individual's cognitive processes. The investigation was limited to a study of those cognitive beliefs which Ellis considers to be irrational.

Further, the study examined the life-orientation of the delinquent based on the theoretical model of Erich Fromm (1964). This position was chosen because Fromm has formulated theoretical viewpoints concerning pro-life and anti-life tendencies of the human being. Such tendencies have been associated with an individual's psychological health. Knowledge of the delinquents' life-orientation was viewed as a significant factor which may be related to his possession of irrational beliefs.

Temporal perspective is the relative degree of concern an individual places on either past, present or future experiences. Psychologists (Wallace and Rabin, 1960; Doob, 1971) agree that an individual's temporal existence is related to his personality traits. Doob (1971, p. 301) states, "that temporal behavior . . . is most intimately linked to personality and most aspects of behaviour." Time perspective then is an important aspect regarding psychological health. Examining this factor was considered a relevant variable toward a better understanding of the criminal's irrational beliefs.

Limitations of the Study

The purpose of this investigation was to explore specific cognitive characteristics of the criminal. In examining this domain of human functioning many limitations appear and must be considered. This study was limited to:

1. Male inmates because over 90 percent of inmates in Canada are males.

2. Inmates over 16 years because the Alberta Correctional Institutes detain only those individuals over 16 years.

3. Inmates serving terms in the Alberta Correctional Institutes because of the inmates' accessibility.

4. Inmates serving terms of two years less a day because the Alberta Correctional Institutes admit only such offenders.

5. Analyses of inmates' mental health by means of paper and pencil inventories because of the ease in using such measures.

6. To those cognitive thoughts existing as irrational as measured by the Adult Irrational Ideas Inventory.

Summary

The area of criminology is in need of empirically supported research in order to provide more effective treatment programs. Criminological research has been dominated primarily with investigations dealing with the delinquents personality characteristics. Methods of therapy implemented to change these characteristics and reduce recidivism have for the most part been unsuccessful. Evidence appears to support the view that the ineffectiveness of clinical programs in criminology may be due to a lack of congruency between the delinquents' personality characteristics and the therapeutic model employed. It was proposed by the investigator that consideration of specific deviant characteristics within the context of a therapeutic framework would increase the likelihood of success in therapy.

The cognitive domain was viewed the most important aspect in determining deviant behaviour. Before a therapeutic model could be incorporated to deal with the criminal's cognitions, however, these cognitions needed to be empirically defined. Albert Ellis' Rational-Emotive theory was the theoretical model on which the study was based. This position considers those factors which function at the cognitive level most relevant to personality dysfunction. This investigation considered those cognitive thoughts existing as irrational, according to Ellis. Other factors which were considered to be significantly related to the criminal's psychological health were his life-orientation and temporal perspective. It was anticipated that the findings of this study will benefit officials in the field of corrections and initiate research into treatment programs of the criminal. Limitations of the study were also indicated.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

Rational-Emotive Theory

Arieti (1965) has declared cognitive theory one of the three most important mental health developments of the decade. This view arose from a number of theoretical and research formulations such as Rokeach (1960), Berne (1961), Ellis (1962), Schacter and Singer (1962), and Beck (1967). Cognitive theory is rapidly gaining strides in psychology and is being fashioned into systems of psychotherapy (Ward, 1968). One such approach is the psychotherapy of Albert Ellis.

Albert Ellis' (1962, 1971a, 1973a) Rational-Emotive theory is formulated upon basic assumptions about the nature of man and about the development of emotional disturbance, including the assumptions that:

1. Man is uniquely rational, as well as irrational.*

2. Emotional or psychological disturbance results from irrational and illogical thinking.

3. Man is biologically predisposed toward irrational thinking. Irrational thoughts develop in early childhood experience and more specifically, these thoughts are acquired from an individual's parents and culture.

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*irrational - false conclusions about either objective reality or oneself.

4. Thinking usually occurs through the use of symbols or language. A disturbed individual maintains his illogical behaviour by internal verbalization of irrational ideas. Sustained emotion, in particular, normally stems from such internal verbalization.

5. Continuing states of emotional disturbance are determined by the perceptions and attitudes toward events and circumstances which are incorporated in the internalized sentences.

6. Negative and self-defeating thoughts and emotions must be modified by reorganizing perceptions and thoughts so that they become more logical and rational.

Ellis contends that humans have four basic processes, all of which are indispensable to his psychological health and all of which are interconnected: (1) He perceives or senses, (2) He moves or acts, (3) He feels or emotes, (4) He reasons or thinks.

> "We function, then, as a single organism--perceiving, moving, thinking and emoting simultaneously and interrelatedly. These four basic life processes are not distinctly different ones each beginning where the others leave off. Instead, they all significantly overlap and are in some respects, aspects of the same thing (Ellis and Harper, 1970, p. 17)."

Another major point of Ellis' theory is the relationship between language and emotion, and conscious and unconscious thought. Ellis believes that unconscious thoughts are largely what Freud called preconscious ideas. While these thoughts are not immediately available to an individual's awareness, one can learn to infer and observe what they are by working back from the behaviour they caused. Ellis firmly believes that an individual, even though he is seriously emotionally disturbed, can learn to perceive the signals that invariably motivate his emotions. The individual can succeed in deciphering the 'unconscious' messages which he is continually transmitting to himself. Once he clearly sees, understands, and begins to challenge and question these sentences which create his feelings "he will tend to develop . . . a new behavioural effect, which consists of a radically changed emotion or symptom (Ellis, 1971a, p. 9)."

Ellis identified a number of illogical ideas which increase the incidence of anxiety and which also seem to be rampant in our Western society, contributing to widespread neurosis. These irrational beliefs include the following:

1. The idea that it is a dire necessity for an adult human being to be loved or approved by virtually every significant other person in his community.
2. The idea that one should be thoroughly competent, adequate, and achieving in all possible respects if one is to consider oneself worthwhile.
3. The idea that certain people are bad, wicked, or villainous and that they should be severely blamed and punished for their villainy.
4. The idea that it is awful and catastrophic when things are not the way one would very much like them to be.
5. The idea that human unhappiness is externally caused and that people have little or no ability to control their sorrows and disturbances.

6. The idea that if something is or may be dangerous or fearsome one should be terribly concerned about it and should keep dwelling on the possibility of its occurring.

7. The idea that it is easier to avoid than to face certain life difficulties and self responsibilites.

8. The idea that one should be dependent on others and needs someone stronger than oneself on whom to rely.

9. The idea that one's past history is an all-important important determiner of one's present behaviour and that because something strongly affected one's life, it should indefinitely have a similar effect.

10. The idea that one should become quite upset over other people's problems and disturbances.

11. The idea that there is invariably a right, precise, and perfect solution to human problems and that it is catastrophic if this perfect solution is not found.

These then are the irrational beliefs which lead to most psychological disturbances. According to Ellis, by the time a person reaches adulthood, he has been conditioned to do most, if not all, of his thinking and consequently his emoting. For all practical purposes, the possession of irrational beliefs frequently lead to self-defeating behaviour. Frustration and anxiety result and are maintained through internalizing these beliefs. By repeating these self- indoctrinating beliefs they become our thoughts and emotions. Therefore, to change negative emotion and self-defeating behaviour one must change these internalized thoughts.

The task of the Rational-Emotive therapist is to show the patient that he has learned (from his parents, peers, church, reading, movies, and television) some irrational philosophies about life and that he is having difficulties because he perpetuates these ideas through self-verbalization. This is usually illustrated by what Ellis calls the A-B-C theory of neurosis. Using this technique, the therapist labels the patient's problem (e.g. severe anxiety) as C, and the phenomenon that the patient believes to be the cause of his problem (e.g. fear of failure) as A. The patient argues that A causes C, but the therapist quickly points out that the real cause of C is not A but B, where B represents some illogical oft-repeated statement (e.g. that it would be terrible if he failed because unless he is perfect in everything he does, he is worthless as a human being). The therapist then gets the patient to recognize the B's in his problem and actively counter-propangandizes them by pointing out their irrationality. The therapist also teaches the patient how to defeat such illogical ideas himself, both through rational self-encounter and action (e.g. risking failure by engaging in some difficult task). Once the B's are defeated, C (the problem behaviour) is eliminated if the patient has substituted a rational philosophy of life for his previously irrational one. "The goals of therapy are not merely the amelioration of presenting disturbances or symptoms but the significant diminishing of the clients' disturbability (Ellis, 1973b, p. 10)."

Practice and Research

Rational-Emotive psychotherapy has been used successfully to combat many forms of disturbed behaviour: academic underachievement (Rand, 1970), alcoholic tendencies (Sherman, 1967), depression (Hauck, 1971), guilt feelings, (Geis, 1966), homosexuality (Ellis, 1971b), impulse control (Watkins, 1973), marital problems (Ard, 1969; Ellis, 1966), phobias (Maultsby, 1971), psychopathy (Ellis, 1962; Diamond, 1967), rehabilitation problems (Ard, 1968; Sella, 1969). Approximately 90% of the clients who have engaged in Rational-Emotive psychotherapy for ten or more sessions have shown considerable or distinct improvement (Ellis, 1962).

Ellis' therapeutic model places great emphasis on the importance of rationality for effective living. A psychologically healthy person functions from a limited number of irrational ideas while emotionally disturbed individuals tend to employ considerably more irrational ideas. Empirical evidence to support this conclusion has been reported on a number of variables: alcoholic tendencies (Davies, 1970), anxiety (Taft, 1968; Winship, 1972), assertive behaviour (Vargo, 1972), behaviour problems (Hoxter, 1967), depression (Beck, 1966), marital adjustment (Eisenberg, 1971), prison inmates (Morris, 1974a), underachievement (Conklin, 1965; Zingle, 1965).

Experimental investigations demonstrating the effectiveness of the Rational-Emotive approach have also been conducted. These studies (Burkhead, 1970; Karst and Trexler, 1970; DiLoreto, 1971; Meichenbaum et al., 1971) have reported that Rational-Emotive therapy had significantly reduced client anxiety, more so than other treatment methods. Sharma (1970) and Zingle (1965), using high school underachievers, demonstrated that rational therapy was successful with these subjects.

Based upon previous research it would seem likely to assume, at least theoretically, that Rational-Emotive therapy may be effective with a criminal sample. If criminals are psychologically disturbed indiviuals and there is reason to believe that this is the case then they may also operate from irrational beliefs. If criminals do in fact possess irrational beliefs according to Ellis then there would be implications for investigation into the effectiveness of Rational-Emotive therapy.

Limitations of Rational-Emotive Theory

All theoretical models of human behaviour, including Rational-Emotive theory, have definite limitations. The purpose of this section is to indicate some of the limitations apparent in Ellis' approach. Such an analysis will help to provide a perspective from which this contemporary model of human functioning can be evaluated.

The effectiveness of Ellis' approach to psychotherapy may be limited to those individuals possessing certain personality characteristics. Rational-Emotive therapy, according to Ellis, is philosophical, intellectual, theoretical, logical and empirical in its approach to psychological disturbance. Individuals who are intelligent, educated, insightful and willing to work at changing their thinking would no doubt be more likely to find this form of therapy beneficial. Individuals with serious intellectual deficiencies, or psychotic behaviour, may not have the capacity to relate to the therapist on the level required. Since communication, and hence language, is a vital aspect of this therapeutic model it would seem that individuals with severe personality deterioration, whose language and thinking processes have become incoherent, insensible and illogical, will experience difficulty with this method of therapy. As the individual's cognition become more disintegrated Rational-Emotive therapy may become less effective.

Another limitation of Ellis may be found in his logical analysis (A-B-C) for identifying and removing irrational beliefs. Such an analysis for indentifying behavioural dysfunction sees little value in peak-experiences, satoris, revelations and spiritual experiences. Self-understanding may be enhanced by virtue of these experiences and denial of their worth may limit the value of Rational-Emotive therapy, making it more specialized and restrictive than necessary.

The personality characteristics of the therapist who uses the Rational-Emotive approach provide another area of concern. In order to be an effective Rational-Emotive therapist the individual would need to be active, directive, perceptive, responsive, insightful and analytical during the therapy session. This individual may find it necessary to possess teacher-educator traits, have a working knowledge of other psychotherapeutic systems, have a theoretical and philosophical orientation, realize the importance of cognitive factors in determining behaviour, have an awareness of his own irrational beliefs and see the value of interpretation as related to human behaviour. As the "expert" this individual would also need to feel at ease about placing his values upon the client to help him lead a more productive existence. Possession of these therapist characteristics for Rational-Emotive therapy may be too unrealistic for many individuals to adopt, further limiting the use of Ellis' approach.

Rational-Emotive theory is based upon assumptions concerning the nature of man and about the etiology of psychological disturbances. One assumption states, "that man is uniquely rational, as well as irrational (Ellis, 1962, p. 36)." Ellis never clearly defines the meaning of this assumption and therefore, interpretation often leads to confusion. Possible explanations would need to consider whether a simultaneous or temporal relationship exists between this dichotomy found in man. It may be questionable, as to whether man is capable of being both rational and irrational simultaneously. If this position is accepted, it would indicate that a temporal relationship of these factors may be the more appropriate explanation. Granting this premise however, some uncertainty may still occur. If, at any given point in time, man is irrational then it would seem reasonable to assume that he may experience difficulty in rationally deducing his own irrationality. Ellis (1973a, p. 88) contends, "that false conclusions stem from setting up false premises." The individual who acts in accordance with false conclusions may experience difficulty in logically deducing their false premises. For this reason, Ellis believes, an emotionally disturbed individual requires a psychotherapist.

The view that emotional disturbance results from irrational thinking is another assumption underlying Rational-Emotive theory. Negative emotion is seen as being related to an individual's sustained and reflective self-appraisals which are based upon illogical thoughts. According to Ellis, action of this nature is detrimental to one's psychological health and active therapy is encouraged. In contrast, Ellis' form of irrational thinking may be perceived as a positive factor leading to self-awareness. For instance, Laing (1965) believes that individuals who experience emotional imbalance often obtain a deeper, more positive meaning for their existence. Similarily, the theory of Positive Disintegration (Dabrowski, 1964) postulates that some pathological states are necessary conditions for positive development of the individual. Thus, psychological disturbances may be seen as having the potential to accelerate or deepen personality growth. If this is true, then there is a possibility that Ellis' irrational beliefs may be components leading to psychological health, according to Laing and Dabrowski.

The premise that individuals have "normal biological tendencies toward irrationality (Ellis, 1962, p. 93)" also underlies Rational-Emotive theory. Other theoretical orientations concerned with the nature of man, which have attracted more supporters, have defined man as being predisposed toward self-actualization (Humanistic Psychology), instinctual gratification (Psychoanalytic Psychology) and positive reinforcement (Behavioral Psychology). Ellis has arrived at his assumptions of man primarily from clinical data and more scientific and empirical research may be necessary to make such a contention valid.

Another assumption of Ellis considers early childhood experiences important determinants of one's irrational thinking. However, a developmental model which would enhance understanding of this relationship is not included in Rational-Emotive theory. Unlike others (Erikson, Freud and Piaget) who have proposed developmental stages associated with childhood experiences, Ellis provides no such model in relation to the development of irrational beliefs. A certain strength may be added to Rational-Emotive theory if such a model was incorporated within its theoretical framework.

Ellis also assumes an interrelatedness among the four basic processes of man, which include thinking, emoting, sensing and acting. Although a relationship is proposed, little attention is devoted to the processes of sensing and acting; much greater emphasis is placed on thinking and emoting. If a more comprehensive analysis was presented to further demonstrate the interrelationship of the four basic processes then a certain quality would be introduced to Rational-Emotive theory.

A major limitation of Ellis is found when considering his definition of irrationality. This concept is viewed in terms of irrational behaviour and is defined as, "inappropriate behaviour elicited from false assumptions." Ellis eludes directly defining the concept of irrationality and instead, perceives it as a process of human behaviour. Failure to formulate a clear and explicit definition of this major concept, which is integral to Ellis' formulations, constitutes a definite weakness within Rational-Emotive theory.

Ellis maintains that motivating determinants of behaviour are found in what Freud termed the preconscious hence, these determinants are readily available to conscious awareness. Certain limitations of this position are apparent if, in fact, motivating factors of human behaviour are located in the unconscious. Descriptive and concrete techniques employed by the Rational-Emotive therapist may be too elementary to resolve aspects of dynamic behaviour. If the human being is a complex and dynamic entity, and general agreement can be found to support this view, then examination of an individual's irrational beliefs may be too simplistic an approach to effectively understand behavioural dysfunction.

Self-evaluation is seen by Ellis in terms of an individual's traits and performances rather than in terms of 'being' and self. Ellis (1973a, p. 65) believes, "that an individual does not have to rate himself, esteem himself, or have any self-measurement or self-concept whatsoever." In contrast, a personal being representing the perfection of oneself is often seen as fundamental to human functioning (Freud, 1950; Rogers, 1951; Maslow, 1968; Perls, 1969). Ellis refutes the existence of a 'being' on both empirical and logical grounds. Aquinas (Smullyan _et al_., 1962) argues that proof of a 'beings' existence, however, may be beyond man's finite reasoning capacity and suggests that such arguments are in themselves not completely rational. If man does not possess those faculties which enable him to prove the existence of a 'being' then arguments against the existence of 'being' may also escape man.

Disagreement also appears between Ellis' concept of anxiety and concepts presented by other psychologists. According to Rational-Emotive theory, anxiety is detrimental to human functioning. Alternate views suggest that emotional distress is fundamental to human development. For instance, May (1953,

p. 39) defines anxiety as, "an inner struggle . . . between our strength as a self and a danger that threatens our existence as self." Anxiety occurs when an individual becomes overly concerned with being disintegrating into non-being. This Existential state is inevitable and presumably "natural", resulting from fear of death. Frankl (1969, p. 165) maintains, "that mental health is based on a certain degree of tension . . . which is inherent in the human being." In addition, an individual behaving in a way contrary to conscience is also seen as resulting in anxiety (Mowrer, 1964). In this case, anxiety is considered realistic and socially useful to the individual and "the thing for him to do is to make acknowledgement and restitution, rather than rationalize away his guilt by means of analytical insight (p. 231)." In contradiction to Ellis, anxiety may prove essential to the individual's pursuit of self-awareness.

Ellis views the process of rational thinking as increasing human well-being; whereas, irrational thinking creates emotionalized blocks to well-being. Rational thinking then leads to human happiness while irrational thoughts create human despair. Certain Existentialists, on the other hand, pursue the belief that man cannot be free to become, without experiencing painful emotion. Kierkegaard (1969, p. 201) aptly states, "that man wills in despair to be oneself." This point of view proposes that man must encounter his anxiety and guilt which enables him "to forge his own being by his own will

(Johnson, 1971, p. 117)." The Existential position sees pain and suffering as fundamental components of self-awareness. Ellis' form of irrational thinking which increases self-pain may produce existential crises, increasing self-transcendence.

Further limitations of this approach arise when Ellis states that the purpose of Rational-Emotive theory is, "to accept the full measure of his (man's) humanity . . . in attempting to help him become a more rational, more efficient person (1962, p. 419)." In order that such a goal be achieved man must be consciously aware of his emotions, senses, actions and thoughts. However, James (1962, p. 416) believes, "that man's inability to reason beyond that which is fact limits his reasoning ability and therefore, loses the ultimate truth if he denies its existence." Perhaps Ellis' definition of mental health based upon rational thinking places unrealistic restrictions on man. In relation to Existental thinking Binswanger (1963, p. 150) sees, "that existental thought comes from man's realization that rational thought has definite limitations." If man's potential does limit seeking the "ultimate truth" of existence then Ellis' concept of rationality may not do justice to the entire spectrum of human thought and action. The search for self-knowledge and grappling with existential predicaments appear to be beyond the scope of Ellis' theoretical formulations.

In sum, the system of Rational-Emotive psychotherapy projects certain limitations in its therapeutic approach as well as within its theoretical framework. In the case of the criminal where emotional disturbances cover a wide spectrum of pathological categories awareness of the limitations of this approach may prove valuable. Evaluation of Ellis' cognitive approach to personality disorders, as presented in this section, may conclude that he offers a method of therapy for practioners, rather than an holistic theory of human behaviour.

Life Orientation

Erich Fromm (1941, 1955) views modern man against a backlog of mankind's social and psychic evolution. Human nature is the "product of human evolution: the necessity to satisfy the physiological conditioned drives and the necessity to avoid isolation and moral aloneness (Fromm, 1941, p. 22)." Man's emergence as an "individual" is guided by the social, political and economic structures of the times. Individuals may not be aware of these powerful forces molding the social process and in turn dictating their behaviour. Attempting to escape the bondage of these forces, however, man "has achieved 'freedom from' - without yet having achieved 'freedom to' - to be himself, to be productive, to be fully awake (Fromm, 1955, p. 308)."

Fromm (1941) traces mans' evolution from Primitive times to the modern Capitalistic system of today. He sees man as becoming continually isolated and apart from the physical and social universe. As society becomes increasingly more complex, technical, mechanical and computorized, the individual becomes more alienated, passive, robot-like and depersonalized. Mans' concern for economic production and social progress rather than productivity has created this present state of affairs. Accordingly, Fromm (1955, p. 237) believes, "that man has lost his dominant place in society and has been estranged . . . from his fellow men and to nature."

The economic, social and political conditions of today do not offer a basis for "individualism." Therefore, mans' relationship to the universe is an outgrowth of social structures. In adapting to the present social patterns the individual develops a social character (Fromm, 1947). As social conditions change, there is a corresponding change in social character. As Fromm (1941, p. 298) states, "social conditions influence ideological phenomena through the medium of character."

Fromm (1964) depicts man relating to his world in either a productive (biophilous) or non-productive (necrophilous) manner. The "social mechanisms" of the non-productive individual are related to character types: (a) receptive (b) exploitive (c) hoarding (d) marketing. Each of these character types has in common "the dependency, the emptiness, the meaninglessness of life, the automatization of the individual which lead to a dissatisfaction with life (Fromm, 1947, p. 82)." On the other hand, productiveness is mans' awareness of his potential, capacities and resources characteristic of him.

Mans' search for "individualism" is possible if the aim of his society and culture is toward growth and happiness. Self-realization and personal growth is necessary for productive living. Fromm (1955) believes that man is at the crossroads in choosing between robotism or Humanistic Communitarian Socialism. More recently, he is convinced that people are no longer fascinated with the mechanical and technical but rather "people are seeking a new orientation . . . centered on the priorities of life-- physical and spiritually (Fromm, 1968, p. 5)." Progress toward the productive orientation can only occur when changes are made simultaneously on the economic, socio-political and cultural spheres. Productive change is the responsibility of the individual in organizing his society for a better life. Fromm believes that man is capable of overcoming this threat to his existence.

Biophilous and Necrophilous Orientations

In mans' attempt to impose order on the universe a life orientation develops which can either be "productive" or "non-productive." Essentially, there are two polar attitudes which lie at the root of contemporary mans' relatedness to life: necrophilous (death orientation) and biophilous (life orientation). The main "physic mechanisms" of the necrophilous orientation are authoritarianism, destructiveness and automaton conformity.

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The following personality characteristics are typical of the necrophilous orientation: obsessive, structured, functional. forcefull, mechanical, authoritarian, alienation. Moreover, he craves certainty, dwells in the past, experiences conflict, wishes to destroy life, is attracted to death and desires having rather than "being." The motto of the necrophil is, "Long live death" (Fromm, 1964, p. 45). In short, the necrophil constitutes a fundamental orientation which leads to dysfunction and disturbed behaviour and, according to Fromm (1955, p. 240) includes, "the development of irrational passions, destructive and exploitive strivings."

In contrast, the biophil loves life and living things. The biophilous person prefers the new; he constructs rather than retains the old; he has a variable approach to life; he is concerned with the development of self; and he is mentally healthy and unalienated. This orientation is most adequately depicted in the following:

> ". . . he is a person who relates himself to the world lovingly, and who uses reason to grasp reality objectively; who experiences himself as a unique individual entity . . . who is not subject to irrational authority of conscience and reason . . . and considers life the most precious chance he has (Fromm, 1955, p. 241)."

Such relatedness is termed "love" or "productiveness." Hence, the necrophil is a "destroyer", the biophil is a "creator."

Research

Investigations dealing with the concepts of necrophilia and biophilia have been limited. A study by Fox (1969) found that individuals possessing biophilous characteristics tended to be more conceptually complex, more open minded, less authoritarian, less socially acquiescent, and less likely to embrace irrational ideas than those individuals possessing necrophilous traits. However, research dealing with personality characteristics such as authoritarianism, creativity, social attitude and cognitive structure may be used to distinguish the biophilous and necrophilous orientations.

Authoritarianism is viewed as a singificant personality trait in Frommian theory and is associated with necrophilia. A number of studies (Rokeach, 1960; Costin, 1971; Franklin and Carr, 1971) have reported that highly opinionated individuals tended to be more dogmatic while open-minded individuals were more able to integrate new beliefs into their cognitive systems. Several studies have revealed that high authoritarian subjects were more insecure and have low self-esteem than low authoritarian subjects (Jacoby, 1967; Larsen and Schwendiman, 1969; Kirshna and Prasad, 1971; McClelland and Watson, 1973). Authoritarianism and creativity (biophilous) were found to be negatively related (Eisenman and Cherry, 1970), while creative individuals tended to be more risk-taking than non-creative individuals (Anderson and Cropley, 1966).

Social attitude is also related to one's life orientation. Social acquiescence (Vidulick and Bass, 1960) and hostility (Eisenman and Platt, 1970) were found to correlate significantly with the dogmatic personality. Findings by

Blackburn (1969), Zimmerman et al., (1970), and Akhtar and Kafiludden (1972) demonstrated that emotional components influenced and effected an individual's social attitude and conforming behaviour.

The cognitive complexity-simplicity dimension is another aspect determining life orientation patterns of the individual. For instance, Schroder et al., (1967) reported that cognitively complex subjects (biophilous) were more superior social perceivers than cognitively simple subjects (necrophilous). Gardiner (1972) and Leventhal and Singer (1964) demonstrated that cognitively simple individuals were more rigid than cognitively complex individuals. In support, cognitively complex persons have greater personality integration (Thomas and Seeman, 1972), more flexibility (Goldberg, 1972) and less aggression (Driver, 1962) than cognitively simple persons.

Research, which is presented in a following section, has demonstrated that traits frequently attributed to the criminal indicate that he is dogmatic, socially acquiescent and cognitively simple. Furthermore, on a measure of personal orientation a study (Morris, 1974b) indicated that prison inmates were significantly less self-actualized than normals. If non-self-actualization (non-productive), as well as those personality characteristics cited above, do in fact depict Fromm's necrophil, and if criminals do manifest such traits then it would seem reasonable to conclude that criminals are necrophilous in orientation.

Temporal Perspective

Almost 50 years ago Sturt (1925, p. 1) commented that, "few subjects have received more attention and advanced less than a study of the nature of time." This statement has relevance even today. For instance, Wallace and Rabin (1960), in a major review of the literature on temporal experience, concluded, "Considerable future work, both in terms of the theoretical formulation and experimentation will be necessary before substantial progress can be reported (p. 225)." More recently, in a comprehensive analyses of variables affecting the patterning of time, Doob (1971, p. 230) has indicated that, "the results are too conflicting, the methodologies too diverse . . . for anything solid to emerge." Although the study of temporal perspective is still in its infancy certain principles, hypotheses and trends have been formulated.

Doob (1971, p. 8) has defined time perspective as, "the direction or awareness at a given moment of characteristically over a long period of time." Wallace and Rabin (1960, p. 232) have added, "that this dimension involves a molar (days, weeks, months and years) rather than a molecular approach to the problem of temporal behaviour."

Psychologists have investigated the relationship between temporal experience and other personality phenomena.

Lewin (1951), for instance, has considered an individual's personality as a dimension of his "life space" and has suggested that the social environment in which an individual lives may materially influence his time perspective. Socio-economic status, friends, associates, as well as other relevant variables are regarded as significant factors affecting an individual's time orientation. It would seem likely then that the criminal's time perspective may also be influenced by his "life space."

The relationship between a person's past, present and future orientation has been an important aspect of many theoretical positions in psychology. Psychoanalytic theorists (Bender, 1950; Freud, 1950; Jones, 1951) have realized the importance of the concept of time as it emerges in early childhood. Aspects of temporal behaviour have been linked to the personality and ego functioning of the individual. Erikson (1956) has viewed this concept in terms of "time diffusion." According to this belief, regression is often the mechanism an individual uses to resolve a crisis situation.

Humanistic writers have considered time competence of considerable import to psychological health. Maslow (1968, p. 76) has suggested, "that in all common peak-experiences there is a characteristic disorientation in time." This experience has been expressed as "most here-now, most free of the past and of the future in various senses, most 'all there' in the experience (p. 102)." Perls (1969) has placed emphasis on the individual's awareness of the emerging gestalt and this can best be accomplished through the "here and now." Also, Client-centered therapy has focused its attention on the individual's immediate conscious perceptions (Rogers, 1951).

Existential theorists have considered temporal perspective of an individual as "the time it takes to become real (May, 1958, p. 84)." In accordance, Frankl (1969, p. 206) has expressed the view that, "Man does not simply exist, but always decides what his existence will be, what he will become in the next moment." Authentic-life meaning, proposed by Bugental (1965), is only and always determined by the future.

Each of the above theoretical positions has differed in its percept of time perspectiveness. The past is considered vital to the psychoanalyst; the present is of import for the Humanist; while the future is the dominant mode for some Existentialists. At various moments each individual has experienced aspects of his past, present and future. Doob (1971, p. 13) has appropriately stated this process as, "we experience in the psychological present, even as we recollect the past and anticipate the future . . . we renounce one of these activities as a result of one or both of the other two orientations."

Research

An individual's time perspective has been related to personality traits and hence, has been viewed as a major factor in disturbed behaviour (Wallace and Rabin, 1960). Significant relationships have been reported between time perspective and achievement (McClelland, 1961), affective states (Kastenbaum, 1965), alcoholism (Roos and Albers, 1965, Smart, 1968), anxiety (Cohen and Mezey, 1961; Krauss, 1967), delinquency (Davids _et al_., 1962), dogmatism (Rokeach and Bonier, 1960), ego-strength (Shybut, 1970), and introverts (Eysenck, 1959).

Many investigations have dealt with time perspective and abnormal behaviour. In a study involving severely disturbed, moderately disturbed and normal individuals, Shybut (1968) found that disturbed individuals were less future oriented than normals. Other investigations (Israeli, 1936; Eissler, 1952; Wallace, 1956; Rabin, 1957) have concluded that schizophrenics lack present time orientation. Depressed individuals were found to be past oriented (Lehman, 1967); emotionally disturbed individuals operated from an extended past and future time perspective (Klineberg, 1968); while psychotics experienced a diffused time orientation (Guertin and Rabin, 1960). In addition, Morris (1974b) found that on a measure of personal orientation, the time competency scale discriminated between prison inmates and normals to a greater degree than any other scale. Findings indicated that prisoners lacked present orientation and instead, emphasized past or future events.

Previous investigations suggest then that psychological health is closely associated to the temporal perspective dimension. Personality disorders have been related to temporal disorientation. If criminals are psychologically unhealthy individuals, and research would support such a position, then in all likelihood they experience a disorientation in time. The present study attempted to more clearly delineate this aspect of the criminal. It was concluded that knowledge of the criminal's time perspective may be significantly related to his life orientation (Fromm) and his irrational beliefs (Ellis). Such additional information may provide a more comprehensive understanding of the criminal and may provide implications for therapy.

Research in Criminology

Criminological research has explored many characteristics of criminal behaviour. The research reviewed in this section, however, has been limited to those criminal characteristics related to Rational-Emotive theory and cognitive development, life orientation and time perspective.

Experimental research into the delinquent's cognitive dimensions has been recently pursued. Spitzer and Spavecek (1966) found that delinquents possessed cognitively simple and rigid structures. It was demonstrated (Kahn, 1971) that criminal impulsiveness could be cognitively controlled, leading to positive behaviour change. Shore _et_ _al_., (1967) investigated the relationship between psychotherapy and the delinquents' cognitive schemas. Successful therapy tended to change the criminals' cognitive structures in a direction of flexibility, complexity and integration which produced more effective adjustment.

Diamond (1967) and Ard (1968) have demonstrated the effectiveness of Rational-Emotive therapy in changing the cognitive structure of the delinquent. Holland (1967, p. 9) has noted that the significant criterion in effectively dealing with criminals in psychotherapy "is the visibility of the behaviour involved, insofar as this is controllable by the deviant person." In attempting to understand criminal behaviour Ellis (1962, p. 290) has pointed out:

> ". . . that so called hardened criminals, act in an irrational manner because they believe that they are helping themselves thereby . . . they are often capable of radically changing their philosophic orientation and their anti-social behaviour which springs from that orientation."

According to Watkins (1973), clinical treatment of anti-social behaviour is possible if the therapist has distinguished between the individual's "needs" and "wants." Delinquent behaviour can be related to "the illogical equating of wants with needs which has led to their acting as if they ought to gratify themselves (p. 31)." A practical example of this principle and the effectiveness of Rational-Emotive therapy has been the case of Nick Sella (1969). A former criminal and client of several mental-health agencies has credited rational thinking for his rehabilitation. He has declared that:

> "I had to learn to recognize old self-defeating, 'self-pity' types of sentences and replace them with new sensible ones. A big thing I learned was that I may think anything I wish about anyone or anything. However to act out my thoughts or desire is entirely another matter altogether. I learned that there is such a thing as 'happy thinking' (p. 2)."

One major focus of criminological research has been investigating the personality characteristics/life orientation of the criminal. Gough (1960) found that delinquent characteristics consisted of dissatisfaction, rebelliousness and defensiveness. Criminals were found to obtain high scores on measures of psychotism, extroversion and neurotism (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1971). Findings by Schalling and Holmberg (1970) indicated that criminals tended to be more neurotic, more impulsive and more thrill-seeking than normals. Investigations (Mattocks and Spencer, 1971; Stewart, 1972) have revealed that delinquents exhibit strong dependency behaviour. Criminals were also found to be more hostile, more affective and more demanding than were non-criminals (Smith, 1973). Psychopathic tendencies have been cited as characteristic of criminal behaviour (Waldo and Dinitz, 1967) as well as low self-concept compared to normals (Dinitz and Reckless, 1958; Marshall, 1973). These personality attributes of the criminal, do in fact, depict Fromm's necrophil.

Time perspective of the criminal has also been investigated. Several studies (Barndt and Johnson, 1955; Davids *et al.*, 1962; Cochrane, 1971) have demonstrated that prisoners operate from a shorter time perspective than do normals. Constriction of the future was found to be characteristic of criminal behaviour (Stein et al., 1968) and in female delinquents this aspect was significantly related to the degree of impulsivity (Julia, 1971). Similarily, Farber (1944) found a significant correlation between future outlook and prisoner morale. The criminal's lack of future perspective is aptly stated by Doob (1971, p. 302) as, "his forward-looking fantasy produces excessive gratification in the present."

In conclusion, the findings of previous research indicate that it would seem reasonable to conclude that the criminal operates from irrational beliefs according to Ellis, possesses necrophilous traits described by Fromm and lacks future time perspective.

Relationship of Thesis Areas

The areas chosen for this investigation have been Ellis' Rational-Emotive theory, Fromm's life orientation and temporal perspective. A number of relationships may be found to exist among these theoretical positions. A similar congruence would appear to exist among these areas regarding the concept of psychological health. Evidence has supported the view that Ellis' form of irrational thinking leads to emotional disturbance; that Fromm's conception of the necrophilous orientation represents pathology; and that temporal disorientation is associated with psychological disorders. Furthermore, the dichotomous nature of Rational-Emotive theory, life orientation, and temporal perspective provide another bases for comparison. For instance, it is possible to consider one's thinking as rational or irrational, life orientation as biophilous or necrophilous and time perspective as past or future oriented. If in fact the criminal is psychologically disturbed then each area is capable of interpreting this aspect of his behaviour. In other words, the criminal would be perceived from each area respectively as irrational, necrophilous and lacking future time orientation.

A certain relatedness also exists when examining the nature of each area chosen for this investigation. Life orientation, for instance, is a multi-dimensional concept encompassing many facets of human functioning. This concept is not explicitly defined and as a result many terms are used to express its meaning. It would appear that this concept provides an all-inclusive and general overview of man's relationship to life. On the other hand, the cognitive (as defined by Ellis) and temporal perspective areas appear to be more explicitly defined, at least in relation to life orientation, and this may be because they are related to and focus upon specific dimensions of human functioning. If Fromm's life orientation does view man in greater perspective than Ellis' form of thinking and temporal perspective, then it may be reasonable to assume that the latter areas are subsets of the former. If this position is accepted, then Ellis' concept of irrationality and the concept of temporal perspective may be considered as dimensions within the boundaries of Fromm's life orientation.

In relation to instruments designed to operationally define each of the above areas it would seem that in all likelihood a life orientation measure may be theoretically limited in its ability to discriminate between various samples, since it covers such a broad spectrum of personality characteristics. However, instruments used to measure a particular form of thinking and time perspective, since they focus upon specific aspects of the individual, may possess greater discriminatory ability than a measure of life orientation. This proposed view, however, is only theoretical in nature and does not in any way reflect the validity of the instruments that measure these areas.

A certain congruence may also be found in the theoretical models of Ellis and Fromm. For example, Ellis is convinced that excessive irrational thinking is detrimental to psychological health. Fromm (1968, p. 67), although differing from Ellis in his definition of irrationality, has pointed out that, "Irrationality necessarily leads to confusion of the mind" and that the psychologically ill person needs "someone who can help him uncover the reasons for this waste of his best human powers and thus regain their use (Fromm, 1950, p. 73)." One similarity that Ellis admits as existing between the two theoretical positions is the following:

> "Fromm clearly hypothesizes human physiological predispositions to thinking, emoting and behaving (as I have). His view of aggression does not seem to differ significantly in most respects, from the Rational-Emotive view (Ellis, 1972, p. 13)."

More specifically, congruent elements are proposed, at least theoretically, between an individual's irrational beliefs and life orientation; between his irrational beliefs and temporal perspective; as well as between his life orientation and temporal perspective.

A parallel has been drawn between the necrophilous orientation presented by Fromm and the irrational beliefs postulated by Ellis. For example, the necrophil is preoccupied with sickness, sadism and death, while certain people are perceived to be bad, wicked and villainous by the irrational person. Force and control are worshipped by necrophils, while irrational individuals are manipulative and authoritarian. The idea that human unhappiness is externally caused constitutes irrational thinking and the necrophil has allowed others to channel his life. Individuals functioning from irrational beliefs have tended to avoid life difficulties. Similarly, necrophils have feared the unpredictable. "Law and order" is desired by the necrophil while the "right and precise" is demanded by the irrational individual. The idea that one should be thoroughly competent, adequate and achieving has been characteristic of irrational behaviour. On the other hand, the necrophil has been viewed as orderly, obsessive and pedantic. To believe that it is necessary to rely on someone stronger than oneself has been considered an irrational thought; the necrophil has become dependant on others for his existence. In addition, it is seen as irrational for an individual to seek love from every significant human being in his environment; the necrophil "constantly seeks" love from others.

The temporal perspective of an individual can also be related to his way of thinking and his life orientation. Characteristic of the necrophil has been his orientation toward the past. Rooted in the past, he has feared the future. According to Rational-Emotive theory, the belief that past events are all-important determiners of the present has been postulated as irrational.

In conclusion, necrophilia has represented pathology (Fromm); irrational thinking has characterized psychological illness (Ellis); and restricted time perspective has suggested personality dysfuntion. In view of previous evidence, it was proposed by the investigator that delinquents manifest these attributes to a greater degree than normals.

Definitions

Irrationality:	Is the relative degree to which an individual possesses the eleven irrational beliefs as outlined by Ellis. The measure of irrationality will be the score obtained on the Adult Irrational Ideas Inventory (AII).

Life-Orientation:	Is the relative degree to which an individual possesses those characteristics of the necrophilous and biophilous orientations as described by Fromm. The measure of life-orientation will be the score obtained on the Life Orientation Test (LOT).
Temporal Perspective:	Is the relative degree to which an individual emphasizes future events. The measure of temporal perspective will be the score obtained on the Wallace Temporal Perspective Technique (WTP).

Hypotheses

1. That the male inmate sample will be significantly more irrational compared to a normal sample, as measured by the Adult Irrational Ideas Inventory (AII).
2. That the male inmate sample will be significantly more necrophilous compared to a normal sample, as measured by the Life Orientation Test (LOT).
3. That the male inmate sample will be significantly less future oriented compared to a normal sample, as measured by the Wallace Temporal Perspective Technique (WTP).

Questions

The following questions have no theoretical bases for presentation. Even so, however, for the purpose of this investigation knowledge obtained from these questions may prove interesting and intriguing. The findings obtained may provide additional information into the inmates' irrational beliefs, life orientation and temporal perspective.

1. Are there certain irrational beliefs that will be more strongly adhered to than others by the male sample, as measured by the Adult Irrational Ideas Inventory?

2. Are there specific demographic factors that will be significantly related to the male inmates' scores on each of the AII inventory, LOT and Temporal Perspective measure?

Chapter 3

Methodology

Procedure

Prior to the start of the investigation the Director of Correctional Services for Alberta, Mr. J. D. Lee, was contacted to obtain permission to do research within the Alberta Correctional System. The Director provided a letter of introduction which was to be presented to the Warden at each institution (Appendix A). The Wardens of the Correctional Institutes in Alberta were mailed letters asking their permission to allow the research (Appendix B). Letters were forwarded to the following institutions:

Bowden Correctional Institute
Calgary Correctional Institute
Fort Saskatchewan Correctional Institute
Nordegg Correctional Institute
Peace River Correctional Institute

A reply to the request was obtained from all the above centers, except the Peace River Correctional Institute. A follow-up letter was not acknowledged and therefore, this institute was not included in the study. The Wardens of each of the other institutes contacted the investigator and suitable testing dates were arranged. Personal interviews with the Wardens were planned to further explain the purpose of the investigation and to describe the procedures involved.

A brief introduction of the research was presented to the inmates prior to administration of the testing materials. Questions and concerns of the inmates were answered by the investigator. Booklets containing the test material were issued to each inmate involved in the study. After completion of the inventories each inmate returned to his previous activities at the institution. Letters of appreciation in granting permission for the research were later sent to each Warden. The letter also indicated that a report of the findings would be forwarded to the institution.

To obtain measures on those variables considered in the investigation the test booklets contained the following materials: Adult Irrational Ideas Inventory (AII), Life Orientation Test (LOT), Wallace Temporal Perspective Inventory (WTP), Biographical Data Inventory, introductory letter and answer sheets (Appendix C). A normal sample was also used for comparison to the inmate sample on these measures.

Subjects

Inmate Group

Male inmates over 16 years of age serving terms of six months to two years less a day in Alberta Correctional Institutes were included in the study. The inmates were chosen on criteria that was most suitable to each institution. Sampling varied among the institutions and included those inmates who volunteered (Fort Saskatchewan), were most accessible (Nordegg), were detained in a specific cell block (Calgary), and occupied alternate beds in the dormitory (Bowden). The total number of inmates sampled was 104. Each inmate completed the research in one sitting, approximately one hour. Anonymity of the inmate was maintained and the mean age of this sample was 21.56 years.

Normal Group

Male individuals from the general population provided a sample for comparison to the inmate group. Non-institutionalized males from the Edmonton and surrounding region were selected for this sample. Data was collected by the investigator and also involved the services of friends, students and professional associates. Instructions to the assistants stated that data was to be collected from male subjects who were at least 16 years of age. This sample consisted of 63 males. Occupations included accountants, bus drivers, computor analysts, electricians, farmers, high school students, laborers, medical doctors, office managers, plumbers, steel workers, store clerks, teachers, the unemployed the retired, and university students. No member of the normal group admitted to being imprisoned or to having a criminal record. This information was reported on the biographical data inventory. Anonymity was maintained and the mean age of this sample was 26.66 years.

Instruments

Adult Irrational Ideas Inventory

The sixty (60) item Adult Irrational Ideas Inventory (Davies, 1970) was based on the original inventory constructed by Zingle (1965). It was designed to measure the eleven irrational beliefs outlined by Ellis. The items of the instrument were single statements scored on a five point Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Scoring consisted of alloting a weight of one to the most rational choice. Thus, a high score represented a greater degree of irrational thoughts.

Reliability

A test-retest reliability on 110 senior education students over a three week period yielded a Pearson r of .76. A Kuder-Richardson formula 20 resulted in coefficients of .74 and .78.

Validity

Construct validity of the AII inventory has been established by Conklin (1965), Zingle (1965), Taft (1968), and others. Studies with this scale have reported a positive relationship between irrationality and anxiety (Taft, 1968; Winship, 1972), alcoholic tendencies (Davies, 1970), assertive behaviour (Vargo, 1972), delinquents (Hoxter, 1967), marital adjustment (Eisenberg, 1971), prison inmates

(Morris, 1974a), and underachievement (Conklin, 1965; Zingle, 1965).

Life Orientation Test

The forty (40) item Life Orientation Test was based on an original 72-item inventory developed by Fox (1969). It was designed to measure the life orientation of an individual as reflected in the writings of Fromm - anti-life (necrophilous) and pro-life (biophilous) tendencies. The items of the instrument were single statements scored on a five point Likert scale ranging from "agree" to "disagree." Scoring consisted of alloting weights of 1 to 5 for the biophilous-agreement items and reverse weightings for necrophilous-agreement items. Low scores have reflected anti-life tendencies while high scores have indicated pro-life tendencies.

Reliability

A test-retest reliability of the inventory (administered to a sample of 200, representing a wide occupational and age range) yielded a Pearson r of .83. A Kuder-Richardson formula resulted in a coefficient of .71.

Validity

Construct validity of the LOT was reported by Fox. High scorers as opposed to low scorers were found to be more conceptually complex, more open-minded, less authoritarian, less socially acquiescent and less likely to embrace irrational ideas.

Temporal Perspective Technique

An adaptation (Shybut, 1968) to the ten item Temporal Perspective Technique developed by Wallace (1956) was used in this study. This technique was chosen as other methods of measuring time perspective have been shown to inadequately reflect this construct (Ruiz _et_ _al_., 1967). This technique was designed to measure an individual's time orientation into the past, present and future depending upon the purpose of the study. Since this study was concerned with only future time perspective a measure was obtained by asking an individual to state ten things that he thought he would do or he thought would happen to him, and afterwards to specify how far in the future he envisioned each event. Shybut's modification of this technique consisted of asking for five responses to this question rather than ten. The median length of time constituted the time perspective score. This modification was employed in the present study as it is generally conceived that prison inmates experience difficulty and stress on tasks which require concentration and extended effort.

Reliability

To date there has been no reliability measures reported on this technique.

Validity

Construct validity has been established using this technique. Significant differences on time perspective scores have been found between normals and schizophrenics (Wallace, 1956) normals and psychologically disturbed persons (Shybut, 1968), and individuals with low and high ego strengths (Shybut, 1970).

Statistical Analysis

Hypotheses 1 and 2

To determine the level of significance between the inmate sample and the normal sample on the Adult Irrational Ideas Inventory and the Life Orientation Test the *t*'test was used.

Hypothesis 3

To determine the level of significance between the inmate sample and the normal sample on the Wallace Temporal Perspective Technique the Mann-Whitney U test was used.

Question 1

To determine those beliefs most strongly adhered to by an inmate sample a frequency analysis of the Adult Irrational Ideas (AII) inventory was used.

Question 2

To determine the level of significance between the inmates' demographic factors and scores on each of the AII inventory, LOT and Wallace Temporal Perspective measure a one-way analysis of variance was used.

Chapter 4

Results

Hypothesis One

> That the male inmate sample will be significantly more irrational compared to a normal sample, as measured by the Adult Irrational Ideas Inventory (AII)

Results of a *t*'test analysis between the inmate and normal groups on the measure of irrationality (AII) are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

A Comparison of AII Inventory Scores For the Inmate and Normal Samples

Group	Number	Standard Deviation	Mean AII Score	t
Inmates	104	26.55	164.89	4.82*
Normals	63	21.71	156.41	

*$p < .001$, one-tailed

A significant difference was found between the inmate and normal sample groups on the measure of irrationality. The inmates investigated in this study were found to be significantly more irrational than a normal sample, as measured by the Adult Irrational Ideas Inventory. Hypothesis number one was supported.

Hypothesis Two

> That the male inmate sample will be significantly more necrophilous compared to a normal sample, as measured by the Life Orientation Test (LOT)

Results of a *t*'test analysis between the inmate and normal groups on the measure of life-orientation are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

A Comparison of LOT Scores for the Inmate and Normal Samples

Group	Number	Standard Deviation	Mean LOT Score	t
Inmates	104	14.92	124.25	1.26*
Normals	63	15.28	120.93	

*n.s., one-tailed

A significant difference was not found between the inmate and the normal sample groups on the measure of life orientation. The inmates investigated in this study were not found to be significantly more necrophilous than a normal sample, as measured by the Life Orientation Test. Hypothesis number two was not supported.

Interestingly, however, the inmate group scored more towards the biophilous direction than the normals.

Hypothesis Three

> That the male inmate sample will be significantly less future oriented compared to a normal sample, as measured by the Wallace Temporal Perspective Technique (WTP)

The distribution of the time perspective measure was highly skewed hence, the Mann-Whitney U test (z approximate) rather than the t'test was used in the statistical analysis. Results of the time perspective measure between the inmate and normal groups are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

A Comparison of Time Perspective Scores For the Inmate and Normal Samples

Group	Number	Range	Mean TP Score	Median TP Score	z
Inmates	100	1-3650	504.89	270	2.27*
Normals	55	1-5475	1170.63	902	

Note - measured in number of days

*$p < .05$, one-tailed

A significant difference was found between the inmate and normal sample groups on the measure of time perspective. The inmates investigated in this study were significantly less future oriented than the normal sample, as measured by the Wallace Temporal Perspective Technique. Hypothesis number three was supported.

Question One

> Are there certain irrational beliefs that will be more strongly adhered to than others by the male inmate sample, as measured by the Adult Irrational Ideas Inventory?

A frequency analysis indicated the percentage of responses for each statement on the five point Likert scale of the AII inventory. By arbitrarily assigning the two most irrational responses as irrational, the middle response as neutral, and the two least irrational responses as rational, three categories for each of the 60 items of the AII inventory were devised. To obtain the total percentage of responses per category for each of the eleven irrational beliefs the average of those items constituting each belief was tabulated. The percentage of responses for each of the irrational beliefs are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Percentage of Responses to the Eleven Irrational Beliefs for a Sample of 104 Male Inmates as Measured by the AII Inventory

Response	Number										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Percent											
Irrational	37.6	40.6	26.8	50.1	25.3	29.5	39.1	27.5	32.7	45.0	25.8
Neutral	15.5	12.5	12.5	11.3	15.2	10.6	11.9	14.1	18.7	14.2	17.7
Rational	46.9	46.9	60.3	38.6	59.5	59.9	49.0	58.4	48.6	40.8	56.5

Those beliefs which contributed most to the inmates' high scores on the Adult Irrational Ideas Inventory were the following:

Irrational belief number 4

The idea that it is awful and catastrophic when things are not the way one would very much like them to be.

Irrational belief number 10

The idea that one should become quite upset over other people's problems and disturbances.

Those beliefs which also contributed to the inmates' high scores on the AII inventory were numbers one, two, seven and nine. They include the following: the necessity to be loved or approved by other significant persons; that one should be thoroughly competent, adequate and achieving to be worthwhile; that it is easier to avoid than to face certain life responsibilities; that one's past history is an all-important determiner of one's present behaviour.

Question Two

> Are there specific demographic factors that will be significantly related to the male inmates' scores on each of the AII inventory, LOT and Temporal Perspective measure?

Inmates were categorized into high (N=35), middle (N=34) and low (N=35) groups determined by their scores on each of the Adult Irrational Ideas Inventory and Life Orientation Test. Results of analysis of variance between the inmates' scores on the measure of irrationality and demographic variables revealed no significant differences. A significant relationship (F=22.13, df = 2,101, p < .0001) was demonstrated between the inmates' scores on the Adult Irrational Ideas inventory and the Life Orientation Test. Inmates who obtained high scores on the AII (irrational) possessed a significant number of necrophilous characteristics.

Significant findings, however, were obtained between the inmates' scores on the LOT and certain demographic variables. A significant difference (F=6.79, df=2,97, p < .01) existed between the inmates' life orientation and his view of the institution. Inmates who were necrophilous in orientation viewed the institution as being helpful in their rehabilitation. In addition, significant findings (F=3.36, df=2,91, p < .05) revealed that inmates obtaining low scores on the LOT considered rehabilitation after leaving the institution. Those inmates which possessed biophilous characteristics sought revenge.

Inmates were categorized into high (N=33), middle (N=34) and low (N=33) groups determined by their score on the Wallace Temporal Perspective measure. This grouping was necessary as four inmates who participated in the study did not complete this inventory. A significant relationship was obtained between the inmates' temporal perspective measure and his position in the family (F=4.41, df=2,94, p < .01). Inmates first or second born in their family were more future oriented than otherwise. A significant finding (F=3.36, df-2,91, p < .05) was also observed between the time perspective measure and the inmates' period of incarceration. Inmates incarcerated for a longer period of time tended to be more future oriented. Similarly, inmates who viewed the institution as assisting them in their rehabilitation operated from a significantly shorter time perspective ($F=3.00$, $df=2,93$, $p < .05$).

Summary

The results of this investigation have indicated that the male prison inmate sample obtained significantly ($t=4.82$, $p < .001$) higher scores on a measure of irrationality (AII inventory) than a normal male sample. Those irrational beliefs suggesting the need to control situations (Irrational belief number 4) and the need for involvement in other people's problems (Irrational belief number 10) were most strongly adhered to by the inmate group. Other beliefs which contributed to the inmates' high scores on the measure of irrationality included the need for approval from others, the need for competency and achievement, the desire to avoid life responsibilities and the view that present behaviour is affected by one's past history. No specific demographic factors were found that would significantly distinguish between the highly irrational and the more rational inmate group. However, the rational inmate group possessed significantly more biophilous characteristics than the irrational group.

On a measure of Fromm's life orientation, no significant differences ($t=1.26$, n.s.) were observed between the inmate and normal sample groups in this study. However, inmates more necrophilous in nature were more positive towards rehabilitation after leaving the prison and viewed the institution as an assistance in this endeavor. Those inmates possessing more biophilous characteristics considered the institution as suppressing and upon release sought revenge toward society.

Significant findings ($z=2.27$, $p < .05$) were also obtained between the inmate and normal sample groups on the measure of temporal perspectiveness. The sample of inmates used in this study were less future oriented than the sample of normal males. The inmate group operated on a mean time perspective of 12-16 months (1.4 years), while the normal group functioned on an average time of 36-38 months (3.2 years). Also, those inmates who were more future oriented appeared to be incarcerated for longer periods of time and tended to be the eldest in their families. In addition, inmates operating from a shorter time perspective viewed the prison as assisting them in their rehabilitation.

Chapter 5

Conclusion

This study demonstrated that a sample of male prison inmates possessed more irrational beliefs and were less future oriented than normal males. Data relating to Fromm's concept of life orientation, however, yielded no significant difference between the inmate and normal samples used in this investigation.

Limitations

Caution should be exercised when generalizing the findings of this study to other inmate and normal sample groups. The sample of inmates investigated in this study was drawn from Alberta Correctional Institutes. Inmates from Federal institutions, for the most part, are imprisoned for more serious crimes and incarcerated for longer periods of time. In addition, efforts were made to obtain random samples of inmates and normals, however, these limitations increased the possibility of bias. Criteria used in the selection of the samples limited randomization, although the samples were considered to be representative of their respective populations.

Another limitation of the study is associated with the measure of temporal perspective. Research in this area is conflicting and this may be due to the unreliability of test measures (Ruiz _et al_., 1967). This limitation, as it pertains to the Wallace Temporal Perspective Technique, may reflect uncertainty regarding the findings of this measure. In addition, this inventory created much concern for the participants as evidenced by the fact that not all individuals completed it.

A further contaminating effect may be related to the administration of the test materials. Inconsistency in collection of the data occurred between the inmate and normal samples. The normals were administered the test inventories individually whereas, the inmates completed this task in groups. The group arrangement may have allowed for easy accessibility to other inmates' responses, although this was discouraged. However, it should be noted that the inventories used in this study are designed for group administration.

The limitations of this investigation may restrict generalization to other inmate and normal samples. These limitations should be considered when interpreting the findings of the study.

Discussion

Hypothesis One

The mental health of the criminal has long been a major concern in the field of criminology. For instance, a 1913 Royal Commission which examined criminal recidivism in

Canada (Chalke, 1972, p. 9) reported, "that there is admittedly a close relationship between mental deficiency and insanity, and crime." More recently, others such as McGrath (1965), Cohen (1966) and Glaser (1971) have also recognized the importance between criminal deviance and psychological health. The present study investigated the psychological health of the criminal based upon Ellis' Rational-Emotive theory. This approach proposes that emotional disturbance is related to illogical thinking and results from irrational beliefs. According to Ellis' concept of irrationality the present investigation, which supported the findings of a previous study (Morris, 1974a), determined that many male prison inmates operate from irrational beliefs. If Ellis is correct in his analysis that irrational beliefs lead to disturbed behaviour then male prisoners are more psychologically disturbed than normal males.

In Chapter One it was pointed out that previous studies investigating criminal traits were, for the most part, descriptive in nature. Findings of these studies reported that the delinquent was defensive (Gough, 1960), dependant (Stewart, 1972), hostile (Smith, 1973) and had a low self-concept (Marshall, 1973). Knowledge of such criminal attributes, however, has not reduced recidivism. Methods of therapy employed to change these criminal attributes in "desired directions" have often proved to be ineffective. A possible factor influencing the ineffectiveness of traditional approaches was related to the incongruency between the therapeutic models employed and the criminal characteristics investigated. That is, previous clinical approaches have been concerned with dimensions of the criminal other than those which have been found through research. On the other hand, it was proposed that if specific criminal traits could be defined and a corresponding treatment technique utilized then therapy may be successful.

Recently, research into criminal behaviour has pursued the delinquent's cognitive dimension (Spitzer and Spavecek, 1966; Kahn, 1967; Shore _et_ _al_., 1967). The cognitive structures of the criminal investigated in these studies, however, are unrelated to a corresponding therapeutic model. The present study examined the cognitive domain of the criminal, but differs from previous studies insofar as observed criminal characteristics can be directly related to a method of psychotherapy.

The irrational beliefs of the offender can be viewed directly within the framework of Rational-Emotive therapy. As a therapeutic technique Ellis' approach has proved successful with delinquents, leading to socially acceptable behavioural patterns (Diamond, 1967; Holland, 1967; Ard, 1968). These investigations, however, were limited to reported case studies. Research with larger groups of criminals under controlled conditions may be required in order to evaluate this therapeutic approach. Future research may also need to consider the process by which the criminal learns irrational beliefs as well as the effect of peer groups on his thinking. Another major concern for future investigations will in all likelihood be the relationship between the nature of the criminal's personality disorder and the effectiveness of Rational-Emotive psychotherapy. Lehman (1972, p. 211) makes the point, "that the key to successful correctional programming is determining which treatment rationales are effective for which types of offenders." It may be found that Ellis's approach to therapy is effective only with certain criminal types.

Irrational thinking, as postulated by Ellis, may be a contributing factor to delinquent behaviour. Even so, however, the possession of irrational beliefs is only one measure of criminal dysfunction. The criminal is likely to be a dynamic and complex being and a total understanding of his behaviour may extend beyond the limits of Ellis' model. In light of the limitations of Rational-Emotive theory presented in a previous section, other theoretical approaches may be more appropriate when attempting to understand the many complexities of the criminal.

Hypothesis Two

It was hypothesized that the inmate sample in this study would be significantly more necrophilous (non-productive) than the normal sample. This hypothesis was derived from previous investigations which described the criminal as depressed (Monaschi, 1950), anti-social (Clark, 1952), compulsive (Caditz, 1959), impulsive (Docter and Widner, 1954) and obsessive (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1971). These personality attributes ascribed to the criminal are characteristic of the necrophilous orientation. Contrary to the hypothesis, however, the present study did not discriminate between the inmate and normal samples on a measure of life orientation.

An explanation for this finding may be found when considering that criminologists (McGrath, 1965; Glaser, 1971; McLean, 1973; Sagarin, 1972) generally agree that continued imprisonment increases and perpetuates the criminal's hostility, frustration, depression and rebelliousness. Many studies which have examined criminal characteristics have been conducted on samples incarcerated for longer periods of time than the sample used in this investigation. The inmates in this study were serving terms of two years less a day. It would seem reasonable that if institutionalization of the criminal does in fact increase the degree of necrophilous traits then such traits may not have been that dominant in the sample used in this study.

Consideration of Fromm's concept of life orientation may provide another explanation for the finding that criminals and normals have a similar relatedness to life. Life orientation is a theoretical view of man's relationship to society which encompasses pro-life and anti-life tendencies.

This multi-dimensional concept includes many aspects of man's relation to his environment. Those specific factors attended to by the inmates and normals can only be surmised. However, since no significant differences were obtained it seems likely that both groups focused upon similar facets of the biophilous- necrophilous dimension. Hence, in spite of the fact that the inmates' were institutionalized and possessed irrational beliefs their orientation to life does not differ significantly from normals.

It would appear from the findings of this study that criminals relate to life in a manner similar to normals. An explanation of criminal behaviour, however, may need to consider the individual's adjustment to society. Sociological theories have attempted to explain the process involved in the delinquent's adjustment to his environment. For instance, Mead (1934), Merton (1938) and Sutherland and Cressey (1960) have described those variables which may influence failure to adjust in a socially mature and responsible manner. Whatever theoretical position is accepted, the findings of this study indicate that a factor related to the criminal's adjustment to society may be the possession of irrational beliefs.

The present study also revealed a certain congruence between the theoretical viewpoints of Ellis and Fromm. Findings indicated that the more irrational thinking inmate possessed necrophilous traits while those inmates holding less irrational thoughts were characteristically biophilous in nature. Further evidence for this relationship between the conceptual frameworks of Ellis and Fromm has been provided by Fox (1969). In relation to other findings, a previous study (Morris, 1974b) demonstrated a similar congruence between self-actualization and Rational-Emotive theory. Other positions in psychology may be found to exhibit a similar relatedness. Allport (Chaing and Maslow, 1969, p. 13) has appropriately stated:

> ". . . for behaviour therapy _efficiency_ (the ability to cope with problems) is the principle goal . . . Non-directive therapy clearly prizes the goal of _growth_; the desideratum for Rogers, Maslow and Jung is _self-actualization_; for Fromm productivity; for Frankl and the logotherapist _meaningfulness_ and _responsibility_ . . . Each position emphasizes an aspect of the individual and although the labels vary, there seems to be a congruency of those criteria.

A certain relatedness may be demonstrated among Frankl's (1969) Logotherapy, Kelly's (1955) Personal Construct theory, Berne's (1961) Transactional Analysis, Wolpe's (1958) Reciprocal Inhibition theory and Glasser's (1965) Reality theory. Further research is required in order to demonstrate the possibility of existing similarities among these theoretical positions.

Hypothesis Three

Wallace and Rabin (1960) and Doob (1971) have proposed that personality dysfunction and mental disorders are closely associated with temporal perspective. Investigations (Kastenbaum, 1965; Krauss, 1967; Lehman, 1967; Smart,

1968) have reported that abnormal behaviour is often related to a temporal disorientation. Psychologically disturbed individuals characteristically function from an extended time perspective, emphasizing either the past or future. Research has also shown that criminals tend to operate from a more restricted time perspective than non-criminals (Farber, 1944; Davids et al., 1962; Cochrane, 1971; Julia, 1971). In addition, Morris (1974b) reported that on a measure of personal orientation prison inmates differed from normals to a greater degree on temporal perspective than on any other dimension. The present study confirmed the findings of other investigations as it demonstrated that a sample of inmates were significantly less future oriented than normals. If the psychological health of the criminal is related to temporal disorientation as well as to the possession of irrational beliefs then it would be logical to assume that the inmates investigated in this study were, for the most part, psychologically disturbed.

A desire for the immediate gratification of needs may be a factor influencing the restricted time perspective of the criminal. Failure to delay gratification suggests a certain immaturity and difficulty in controlling impulses, traits frequently attributed to the criminal. A major principle on the patterning of time forwarded by Doob (1971, p. 93) states, "that gratification is likely to be deferred when the temporal orientation is toward the future, and vice versa." One explanation for delinquent behaviour may be that the criminal act, which enables immediate satisfaction of needs (some of these needs resulting from irrational beliefs), in essence reinforces the criminal's shortened time perspective.

The socio-economic status of the criminal may be another factor related to temporal orientation. Studies (Mischel, 1961; Mischel and Gilligan, 1964) have reported that delay of reward is more acceptable to middle-class than to lower-class children. If criminal behaviour is related, at least in part, to the lower social classes, consideration of this variable in future investigations may provide greater insight into the temporal perspective area. Another concern in further defining the criminal's time orientation may be to examine this dimension before, during and after incarceration. Although such research may be unrealistic, information obtained may provide a better criteria for distinguishing the criminal and non-criminal since prior to and following imprisonment the criminal would be considered part of the normal population.

If treatment programs for the criminal are to be effective then emphasis on changing temporal perspective toward the future may be necessary. Psychotherapy directed at increasing the criminal's motivation and self-confidence to anticipate future goals may be fundamental to successful rehabilitation. Motivating the criminal toward increased self-awareness, a new philosophy of life, changed values and thereby perhaps future goals would then be the desired outcome of therapy. These goals are attainable according to Rogers (1951), Maslow (1968), Perls (1969) if the individual experiences the "here and now". The irrational beliefs described by Ellis can be viewed in the "here and now" and by actively replacing these beliefs with more rational thoughts the criminal may develop appropriate behaviour patterns.

Questions One and Two

According to Ellis' Rational-Emotive theory, inmates of the present study are considered to be psychologically disturbed as they possess more irrational beliefs than normals. Ellis prescribed eleven irrational beliefs that lead to emotional disturbance and the findings of this study have shown that inmates more strongly adhere to certain beliefs than to others. For instance, the idea "that it is awful when things are not the way one would very much like them to be" and "that one should become upset over other people's problems" were two beliefs that most significantly contributed to the inmates' degree of irrationality. Interpretation of these beliefs suggest that the criminal has a need for control of as well as affiliation with other individuals, traits found to be characteristic of the criminal. Since many criminals tend to operate from a shortened time perspective the need for control and affiliation, which are based upon irrational premises, may be easily and quickly satisfied by association with peers that initiate and perpetuate deviant behaviour. Treatment of the criminal may need to emphasize the relationship between peer group influence and the possession of irrational thoughts.

The study also revealed that necrophilous inmates had a favorable impression of the correctional institute and perceived it as assisting in their rehabilitation. A characteristic of the necrophil is his view that external forces dictate his behaviour, hence he is dependant on them and yields to their demands. The necrophilous inmate experiencing the demands and pressures of the institution may perceive the necessity to conform to its rules and regulations. The necrophilous inmate may strongly believe that such an orientation is fundamental for rehabilitation as he perceives a similarity between the institution and society.

If Fromm is correct in his view that necrophilous traits are related to pathology and if the necrophilous oriented inmate does, in fact, perceive the institution favorably then it may be reasonable to conclude that correctional institutions typify pathological conditions. Such conditions may be congruent with the orientation of psychologically unhealthy individuals. On the other hand, findings revealed that the biophilous inmate possessed an unfavorable view of the institution. Since this personality character, according to Fromm, represents the "productive" orientation then it seems likely that the biophilous inmate is capable of recognizing the dehumanizing and pathological conditions of the institution. Unwilling to accept these conditions the biophil may become hostile and aggressive and thus, may seek revenge, not only against the institution but perhaps society as well. The biophilous inmate may truly believe that society is responsible for the psychologically unhealthy conditions existing in the correctional system.

If this position is accepted then there may be implications for therapy. For instance, the psychologically healthy inmate may be rebellious and intolerant toward environmental conditions. The emotionally disturbed inmate, on the other hand, may be that individual who appears to be functioning effectively within the institution, yielding to the demands of the institution. Evidence would support the view that this individual typically characterizes the necrophilous orientation. Treatment programs may need to direct attention towards this individual rather than towards the frustrated and rebellious inmate, which is presently the case. However, extensive research into the personality orientations of the criminal is necessary before any conclusive statements regarding treatment can be made.

In relation to temporal perspective, inmates perceiving the institution as helping their rehabilitation operated from a shorter time perspective than those inmates who viewed the institution negatively. Inmates functioning from a restricted time perspective may have been completing their sentences or were to be paroled and perhaps had more immediate concerns, since their release was forthcoming. If this was the case then their favorable impression of the institution may have resulted from a fear of jeopardizing their release. In other words, they may have believed that their comments about the institution would be forwarded to the administration. Although anonymity was maintained the criminal's defensive nature may have limited expression of his true opinion. Further investigation of the inmate's temporal perspective and his view of the institution in relation to his release date may provide valuable information concerning temporal perspective.

An interesting relationship can be observed between necrophilous inmates and inmates operating from restricted time perspective. Both groups of inmates view the institution favorably. This relationship may be explained when considering that characteristic of the necrophil, according to Fromm, is his limited temporal orientation.

Another finding indicated that inmates who had served more time in prison were also more future oriented, compared to others. Doob (1971) contended that future orientation in criminals may reflect "fantasy aspirations." During imprisonment the delinquent has many hours of leisure and, if desired, privacy. These conditions may enhance the opportunity for day dreaming, imagining and creating fantasies. Prolonged incarceration may further increase such behaviour. The thoughts derived from this behaviour may become the bases for unrealistic and fanciful goals. Future oriented inmates were also found to be the eldest in their families. An explanation for this finding may be found when considering the "first child" syndrome postulated by Adler (1930). According to this view, the eldest child in a family develops feelings of inferiority and insecurity and hence, neurotic tendencies as younger siblings constantly try to surpass him. The eldest child may set goals but the society with its pressures and restrictions may prevent these goals from being attained. Failing to satisfy his original goals the eldest child may truly believe that he is forfeiting his dominant position in the family to younger, realistic and ambitious siblings. In order to maintain his role in the family and increase his own self-esteem, the eldest child compensates by creating new goals. These goals, however, for all intents and purposes, may be so unrealistic and future oriented that they could be considered "fantasy aspirations."

In the case of the potentially delinquent child, who craves immediate satisfaction, this individual may become frustrated and aggressive when society prevents him from attaining his goals, thus, he commits a socially undesirable act. If this child is the eldest in the family and if he is incarcerated for his anti-social act then these factors may further enhance the possibility of his creating "fantasy aspirations." Such behaviour, in all likelihood, leads to neurotic tendencies.

Future orientation of the inmate in this study has been related to prolonged incarceration and to family position. Research dealing with these aspects of the criminal in relation to the formation of unrealistic or fantasy goals may be necessary before a more complete understanding of the criminal's time perspective is possible.

No relationship was obtained between demographic factors and the degree to which inmates possess irrational beliefs. Ellis suggests that irrational thinking is not restricted to social class, age, educational level or other biographical factors. Such a contention may indicate that irrational beliefs of the inmates in this study were, for the most part, independant of demographic variables.

Implications

The present study was concerned with the question of whether prison inmates were psychologically disturbed according to Ellis' Rational-Emotive theory. Based upon previous evidence it was resonable to assume that criminals were emotionally disturbed and thus, would possess irrational beliefs to a greater degree than non-criminals. The findings of this study supported such a contention. In addition, the life orientation and temporal perspective of the inmate was also investigated. A number of relevant variables pertaining to each area, and not included in this study, were mentioned in the previous sections. Many of these variables were considered important and with further investigation would enhance our knowledge of the criminal and thus, provide a basis for increased effectiveness in therapy. It is hoped that many of these variables will generate new hypotheses, leading to future research.

Examining the irrational belief system of the criminal was a primary concern in the present study since a corresponding method of therapy could be utilized. Rational-Emotive therapy has proved to be successful in isolated cases with the criminal, however, extensive research is necessary before this method of psychotherapy can be fully adopted in penal institutions. For instance, future investigations, which support the findings of this study, would need to involve inmates from other Correctional Institutes in Canada as well as from Federal penitentiaries. Experimental studies demonstrating the effectiveness of Rational-Emotive therapy with the criminal would also need to be conducted. Furthermore, a most productive step would be the training of correctional counsellors in the application of this form of therapy. If research findings confirmed the effectiveness of Ellis' approach in reducing recidivism then its incorporation into the penal system may be justified.

At the beginning of this dissertation Cooley (1927, p. 141) was quoted as saying that, "no permanent rehabilitation could said to have been effected until a thorough-going modification had taken place in the criminal's mental and emotional life, beliefs, attitudes, habits and conduct." This investigation has been a small effort in attempting to define an aspect of the criminal's belief system. The beliefs examined in this study reflect, at least from Ellis' point of view, the mental and emotional life of the criminal. If indeed these irrational beliefs can be modified and replaced with rational thinking then permanent rehabilitation of the criminal may become a reality. Perhaps, by directing attention to this aspect of the criminal, psychologists, sociologists, and criminologists may be nearer solutions of crime than were the early reformers.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

Alberta
ATTORNEY GENERAL

Office of
the Correction Services Director

Corrections Service

403/425-1320 Ext. 281

5th Floor, Madison Building
9919 - 105 Street
Edmonton, Alberta, Canada
T5K 2E8

97

July 12, 1973

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:

This will introduce Mr. Barry Morris who is carrying out a research program with respect to inmates.

Kindly provide Mr. Morris with the usual co-operation and assistance and noting he will be requesting inmates to complete a questionnaire during the course of his visit.

Yours truly,

J. D. Lee
Correction Services
Director

JDL/1

APPENDIX B

LETTER REQUESTING RESEARCH

FACULTY OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL
PSYCHOLOGY
TELEPHONE (403) 432-5245

QUAECUMQUE VERA

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA
EDMONTON 7, CANADA

99

July 18, 1973

Dear Sir:

I am conducting a research project for my doctoral dissertation which involves prison inmates. Recently, I completed a pilot study at the Fort Saskatchewan Correctional Institute on the "Irrational Beliefs of Prison Inmates." The results of this study has encouraged the use of a larger inmate sample involving other correctional institutes throughout the province of Alberta. A copy of this project is enclosed.

I am interested in contacting as many inmates as possible to participate in the research and I would like your permission in doing so. I have spoken to Mr. J.D. Lee, Director of Corrections, and he has agreed to the study.

I would appreciate a reply to this matter at your earliest convenience. If further information is required please do not hesitate to contact me.

Yours truly,

G. Barry Morris
B.A., B.Ed., M.A.
Ph.D.(cand.)

GBM*thm
Enclosure

APPENDIX C

MATERIALS OF TEST BOOKLET

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

EDMONTON 7, ALBERTA

September, 1973

Dear Sir:

The following material to be completed consists of three (3) different inventories. Inventory 1 (AII) deals with your ideas and feelings about various topics; Inventory 2 (LOT) considers your opinion on life matters; Inventory 3 (WTP) is concerned with your experiences and their occurrence. Finally, the biographical data sheet contains information relevant to your personal history.

Since each individual opinion in unique, it is important that you answer each item as honestly as possible. There are no right or wrong answers. However, be sure to complete all items on the questionnaire sheets. Results will be made available as soon as possible.

Thanking you in advance for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

G. B. Morris

ADULT I-I INVENTORY

Read each of the following statements and decide how much you agree or disagree. Show your answer on the separate answer page. Use the code shown below.

	A	B	C	D	E
A. I strongly agree	▬	═	═	═	═
B. I agree	═	▬	═	═	═
C. Undecided	═	═	▬	═	═
D. I disagree	═	═	═	▬	═
E. I strongly disagree	═	═	═	═	▬

NOTE

Answer all the questions. (Mark only one choice for each question).

There are no right or wrong answers.

There is no time limit.

If you wish to change an answer, be certain to erase the undesired answer completely.

Because the inventory is to be machine scored a soft pencil should be used.

1. Jeers humiliate me even when I know I am right.

2. I worry about situations where I am being tested.

3. The best way to teach a child right from wrong is to spank him when he is wrong.

4. I must learn to "keep my head" when things go wrong.

5. I think I am getting a fair deal in life.

6. I worry about eternity.

7. I am happiest when I am sitting around doing little or nothing.

8. I prefer to be independent of others in making decisions.

9. If a person is ill-tempered and moody, he will probably never change.

10. I get very upset when I hear of people (not close relatives or close friends) who are very ill.

11. Crime never pays.

12. My family and close friends do not take enough time to become acquainted with my problems.

13. People who do not achieve competency in at least one area are worthless.

14. We are justified in refusing to forgive our enemies.

15. I frequently feel unhappy with my appearance.

16. I feel that life has a great deal more happiness than trouble.

17. I worry over possible misfortunes.

18. I often spend more time in trying to think of ways of getting out of something than it would take me to do it.

19. I tend to look to others for the kind of behavior they approve as right and wrong.

20. Some people are dull and unimaginative because of defective training as a child.

21. Helping others is the very basis of life.

22. School promotions should be for intellectual merit alone.

23. It is very important to me when I do a good job to be praised.

24. I find it difficult to take criticism without feeling hurt.

25. It is terribly upsetting the way some students seem to be constantly protesting about one thing or another.

26. It is impossible at any given time to change one's emotions.

27. I tend to worry about possible accidents and disasters.

28. I need to learn how to keep from being too assertive or too bold.

29. To cooperate with others is better than doing what you feel should be done.

30. Sympathy is the most beautiful emotion of man.

31. People who criticize the government are either ignorant or foolish.

32. I wish that more affection were shown be members of my family.

33. When a person is no longer interested in doing his best, he is done for.

34. I get very angry when I miss a bus which passes only a few feet away from me.

35. My place of employment and/or my neighborhood provide adequate opportunity for me to meet and make friends.

36. I can walk past a grave yard alone at night without feeling uneasy.

37. I avoid inviting others to my home because it is not as nice as theirs.

38. I prefer to have someone with me when I receive bad news.

39. It is necessary to be especially friendly to new co-workers and neighbors.

40. The good person is usually right.

41. Sometimes I feel that no one loves me.

42. I worry about little things.

43. Riches are a sure basis for happiness in the home.

44. I can face a difficult task without fear.

45. I usually try to avoid doing chores which I dislike doing.

46. I like to bear responsibilities alone.

47. Other peoples problems frequently cause me great concern.

48. It is sinful to doubt the bible.

49. It makes me very uncomfortable to be different.

50. I get terribly upset and miserable when things are not the way I would like them to be.

51. I find that my occupation and social life tends to make me unhappy.

52. I am afraid in the dark.

53. Many people that I know are so unkind or unfriendly that I avoid them.

54. It is better to take risks and to commit possible errors, than to seek unnecessary aid of others.

55. I get disturbed when neighbors are very harsh with their little children.

56. I find it very upsetting when important people are indiffernet to me.

57. I have sometimes had a nickname which upset me.

58. I have sometimes crossed the street to avoid meeting some person.

59. When a friend ignores me I become extremely upset.

60. My feelings are easily hurt.

LOT

Form 40

Read each of the following statements and decide how much you agree or disagree. Show your choice on the separate answer sheet. Use the code below.

A : I agree

B : I agree a little

C : Undecided

D: I disagree a little

E : I disagree

NOTE:

There are no right or wrong answers.

There is no time-limit.

Answer all items.

Mark only one choice for each item.

1. Most interesting, exciting pastimes involve much cost for the right kind of equipment.
2. Being part of a new struggling enterprise is more satisfying than working with a well-established organization.
3. There is more pleasure in being freed from tasks by machines than in operating them.
4. Untrimmed trees in the wild state never approach the beauty or symmetry of those properly cultivated.
5. The old values of thrift, order, sacrifice and being on time are still the way to success.
6. Postponement of marriage or the raising of children until one can enjoy material possessions such as cars or houses is desirable.

LOT

2

7. Being alone in a large, unfamiliar city causes one to feel small or insignificant.

8. Although modern art does not show things as they exist, it has a hidden, attractive quality.

9. One of the delights of life is the excitement gained from not knowing about tomorrow.

10. Persons careless in personal appearance should be required to model after those who dress with style and care.

11. A well-run organization usually is under the direction of a man who defines work-roles exactly.

12. The world problems of over-population, quarrels among countries and threats of war should make one hesitate to bring children into the world.

13. It is right to change laws when most people disregard them.

14. The care and concern of those professionals who help in time of bereavement or loss is praiseworthy.

15. Presenting a Shakespearian play with actors dressed as Eskimos instead of in regular costumes would be in poor taste.

16. Hiking or talking with friends are to be preferred to driving cars and being in competitive sports.

17. Persons who always want to change the rules, or add disruptive and different ideas to a meeting should be brought into line.

18. Newspaper and news reports of multiple-murders are useful, because people will then take precautions.

19. Being free to travel and see different things is more important than using one's money to buy houses, cars, land or furniture.

20. Fortunately, group pressures can be brought to bear on young people with extreme ideas.

21. Pleasant memories of past accomplishments are better, than looking to the indefinite future.

LOT

22. Living in a comfortable manner must include some disorder, and some irregular arrangements.

23. The trend toward big-game "hunting" with cameras only may attract more people to safari expeditions.

24. Years of experience in dealing with life or work problems provide ready methods for handling most present problems.

25. Some guilt and self-disgust over past mistaken actions helps one deal with the present.

26. Being involved with the birth of new life, such as in a hospital nursery, must be an enjoyable experience.

27. Making an unfailing habit of keeping one's home and clothes in order is very desirable.

28. All too often parents don't know about or are unaware of their children's failures or shortcomings.

29. A manager must avoid any personal feelings or involvement in dealing with his workers.

30. Being always open to a change of plans or time schedules increases one's emjoyment of life.

31. Pictures of bleeding, dead or injured soldiers certainly make one fearful and wonderous about modern weapons.

32. Free interpretive dancing is generally more pleasing to watch than exact, traditional dance forms.

33. A successful person does not act without much concern and caution about what others will think.

34. The saying that, "There is nothing new under the sun," is mostly true because little is really new.

35. There is a peace or inner serenity to be gained from attending the last rites of a departed one.

36. Self-discipline and refusal of immediate pleasures will result in gains, but hardly in a meaningful life.

LOT

4

37. A translation of a Shakespearian play into modern slang wording could prove interesting and give new understanding.

38. There is something overly immodest, almost indecent, about the bodily movements in modern dancing.

39. The uncertainty of the future gives one sound reason for some fear.

40. It is sad, but necessary, that children be taught to face the realities of death and the cruelties of life.

TIME PERSPECTIVE

List five (5) things that you think you might do or that will happen to you. After each event, indicate approximately (in years, months or days) how far in the future it will be for each event to occur.

EVENT	TIME
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Note: Please complete all items. If in doubt on any of the items attempt to answer it with the best possible answer.

Name ______________________________

Age __________ Sex __________ Marital Status M, D, S, Wid., Sep. (circle one)

Natural Origin ______________ Religious Denomination ______________

Number of children in your family __________ (Including yourself)

Your position in the family: Circle one of: First born, second born, last born, only, other.

Father's Occupation ________________

Mother's Occupation ________________

Parents level of education: Father ______________________

Mother ______________________

Did your family provide religious traning? Yes or No (circle)

State of home environment: Disrupted / / / / / / Stable

Your level of Formal Education: Grade level completed ______________

Hobbies or Interests ______________________________

Number of offenses: 1-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16 or more (circle)

Type of offenses: Property, Personal, Drugs (circle)

Total number of months or years as an inmate ______________

Have you ever been paroled __________? Number of times ________

What kind of books do you read? ______________________________

Are you upgrading your formal education in this institute? Yes or No (circle)

Is this institution helping your adjustment in anyway? Yes or No (circle)

If yes, in what way ______________________________

Who do you respect most in this institution? ____________________

When you leave this institution what is your intent ____________________

____

Do you have any physical handicaps? If so, elaborate ____________________

____

Have you ever received professional Psychiatric Therapy? Yes or No
(circle)

If yes, where: ____________________, with whom: ____________________,

and for how long: ______________________________.

If No, to the above, have you ever considered professional psychiatric

help? Yes or No
(circle)

How often do you see your counsellor ____________________

What is your opinion of counselling? Elaborate ____________________

____

APPENDIX D

CORRELATIONS

The intercorrelations of the AII, LOT and Time Perspective measures for the inmate and normal sample groups are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Intercorrelations of the AII, LOT and Time Perspective Measures for the Inmate and Normal Samples

Group	Lot	WTP
Inmates (AIIr)	-.5713*	.0633
Normals (AIIr)	-.3054*	.1921
Inmates (LOTr)		.0899
Normals (LOTr)		-.3570*

*$p < .01$